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SOCIOLOGICAL NOTES.

Increase of Insanity in London.—The Asylums Committee of the County Council in its last annual report records the number of imbeciles of all classes on the first of last January as 19,954, or an increase of about 700 compared with 1896, and 754 compared with 1895. London has a far larger proportion of lunatics compared with the total number in England and Wales than the relative proportion of population in the two areas would warrant. The publication entitled *London*, for September 16, 1897, in an article on "Lunacy in London," reviews this report at some length and produces a diagram which gives a very vivid picture of the increase of insanity, of insane paupers, of paupers in general as compared with the total population of London for the several years from 1889 to 1896 inclusive. It states that it is generally amongst the poorest class that the greatest percentage of insanity is found. A table showing the occupations of 1807 patients admitted last year to the asylums, indicates that there were 285 laborers, 137 with no occupations, 83 ill-paid clerks, 43 carpenters, 33 boot and shoe makers, 44 tailors, 55 printers, and 43 porters. Of the women admitted, 392 were classed as housewives, 259 domestic servants, 86 charwomen, 39 laundresses, 43 dressmakers, 44 tailoresses. There was not a uniform classification of the causes as given by the medical officers of the different asylums, but a table is given containing a list of the chief causes as follows: 740 hereditary influences, direct or collateral; 717 previous attacks; 611 drink; 301 old age and senility; 269 adverse circumstances, business anxieties, worry, over-work, over-exertion, mental anxiety; 134 domestic troubles, including loss of relatives; 133 change of life; 49 privation and starvation.

It is also stated that these figures probably contain some duplications but are sufficiently indicative of the general causes operating in London.

Free Medical Aid in Dispensaries.*—It is a much mooted question among members of the medical profession as to how far it is wise to proffer free medical aid to the public. The competition for practice material among the different medical schools and the younger members of the medical profession generally, has led to a rapid growth of free dispensaries in all our large cities. These are also partially supported by the benevolent public, which contributes because it

* The information in this note has been obtained from the proof sheets of Dr. Kase's paper, which the author very kindly loaned for the purpose at the Editor's request.

regards them as a species of wise charity. The medical profession has also been always most willing to give its services for a similar reason. In an excellent article by Mr. Savage, published in the volume on Hospitals of the report of the International Congress of Charities and Philanthropy, held in Chicago in 1893, there is a review of the growth of the dispensary system in this country, and of some of the attempts to check its abuse, notably those in New York City.

One of the latest studies of the question and one of considerable value because of the method pursued in the investigation, is contained in a paper submitted by Dr. Edmund H. Kase, of Philadelphia, at a recent gathering of homœopathists at Scranton, Pa. The title of Dr. Kase's paper, which will be published in the proceedings of the society, and also, doubtless, in one of the medical journals, is "Dispensary Abuse: Result of an Investigation of Over One Thousand Consecutive Cases." As a matter of fact, Dr. Kase took 1058 consecutive cases of persons who applied for treatment at the Hahnemann Hospital Dispensary, Philadelphia, between June 7 and July 8, 1897. Dr. Kase questioned and cross-examined each person, and in only three cases failed to get full information of a satisfactory kind. The original record of this investigation is on file at the hospital, and is accessible to the medical profession and others who may show good reason for studying this material.

The total number of cases was divided into eighteen classes in tabulating the returns. The first class includes "patients very poor, evident pauper class, children and elderly people who with difficulty are able to find their daily bread and shelter, includes those out of work most of the time during the past year."

The second class.—Patients who have no one to support but themselves and whose aggregate cash receipts during the past year have averaged less than \$8.00 per week.

Class three.—Same as class two, but with average earnings from \$8.00 up to and including those with \$12.00 per week.

Class four.—Same as class two and three, but with earnings averaging over \$12.00 per week and including those receiving as high as \$15.00 per week.

Class five.—Ditto, with earnings over \$15.00 per week.

Class six.—Ditto, with earnings averaging from \$3.00 to \$5.00 per week, including board.

Class seven.—Ditto, with more than \$5.00 per week, including board.

Class eight.—Patients from families with two or more to support, in which the aggregate cash receipts for the past year averaged \$10.00 or less per week.

Class nine.—Same as class eight, with average earnings of more than \$10.00 and less than \$12.00 per week.

Class ten.—Same as classes eight and nine, with average earnings of \$12.00 per week and upwards, including those as high as \$15.00 per week.

Class eleven.—Ditto, with over \$15.00 per week.

Class twelve.—Patients from families with three to support, in which the aggregate cash receipts for the past year have averaged \$12.00 per week and upwards, including those with \$15.00 per week.

Class thirteen.—Ditto, with average earnings over \$15.00.

Class fourteen.—Patients from families of four to seven to support, in which the aggregate cash receipts for the past year have averaged \$12.00 per week and upwards, including those with \$15.00 per week.

Class fifteen.—Ditto, with average earnings of more than \$15.00 and as high as \$18.00.

Class sixteen.—Ditto, with average earnings over \$18.00.

Class seventeen.—Patients from families of seven to twelve to support, in which the aggregate cash receipts for the past year have averaged \$12.00 per week and upwards as high as \$18.00.

Class eighteen.—Ditto, with average earnings over \$18.00 per week.

The total number of cases distributed among these eighteen classes gave the following figures to each class respectively from one to eighteen: 86, 172, 42, 4, 2, 41, 5, 543, 28, 25, 7, 11, 1, 64, 12, 6, 3.

It would seem from this table that over half the total number of cases were patients with families of two or more to support, in which the aggregate cash receipts for the past year have averaged \$10.00 or less per week. Of the total number of cases, 258 belonged in the medical department of the dispensary; 227 in the surgical; 116 in the eye department, and the balance scattered through ten other departments. This would not seem to lend support to the theory which has been advanced, that the great majority of cases treated in the free dispensaries are those of persons with an abnormal craving for stimulants or medicines of any kind, who become habitués of the medical dispensaries. Many of these cases which Dr. Kase discusses individually are persons owning property and in apparent comfortable circumstances.

In the general conclusions of his paper, however, Dr. Kase is inclined to blame the medical profession for such abuses as exist rather than the public itself. He says in one place: "Without fear of contradiction, however, I feel safe in saying that the great majority of physicians as well as laymen would hardly claim that all of the above 1058 people were deserving of free medical service; on the contrary all will agree that there are some among this list who should not be

allowed to partake of dispensary aid, being totally undeserving of such charity, and some means, therefore, should speedily be applied to correct this abuse, however small it may be, which tends to a wrong diversion of funds and is an open bid for pauperism and dependents."

Dr. Kase brings out a hitherto but little noticed reason why many well-to-do persons will go to the dispensary for aid. They are often people who contribute to the support of dispensaries and feel, therefore, that they have a claim as though they were members of a society distributing medical relief. This is especially true in some industrial establishments where firms contribute to the expense of providing a free dispensary with the distinct understanding that their employes shall have free treatment at all times. Dr. Kase admits that in the dispensary where he examined his cases that this fact accounts for some of the better-to-do cases which appear on the records. The accident department of the hospitals also act as feeders to the dispensary and bring in a class of persons who would never think of going to a dispensary on their own account, but who often remain patients of the dispensary until permanently cured. Dr. Kase reaches the conclusion that the real abuse of the dispensary is less than supposed, and that of this real abuse fully 90 per cent is the fault of physicians themselves who indirectly or directly bring or send persons to the dispensary who are able, and in most cases would be willing, to pay a fair compensation for medical advice and attendance.

Factory Inspection in the United States.—In *Bulletin* No. 12 of the United States Department of Labor for September, 1897, Mr. W. F. Willoughby has an article on "The Inspection of Factories and Workshops in the United States," which is in substance the report presented by the department to the recent International Congress held at Brussels.*

The article, in addition to stating the meaning of factory inspection as applied in the United States, reviews briefly the laws in the several states and gives the following summary of the history of such inspection throughout the United States:

"The history of the development of the official inspection of factories and workshops in the United States is like that of the history of all social legislation. One state has led the way by the enactment of tentative measures, which it has afterward developed as dictated by experience. Other states have profited by the example and have taken similar steps. The moral influence of the action of states upon each other in the United States is great. A movement at first grows slowly, but as state after state adopts similar measures the pressure

* *Congrès International des Accidents du Travail et des Assurances sociales*, at Brussels, Belgium, July, 1897.

upon others to do likewise becomes stronger, and the movement tends to advance at a constantly increasing rate.

"In the field of the inspection of factories we are now in the midst of such a movement. Factory inspection in the United States is of comparatively recent development. Though Massachusetts, the first state to take steps in this direction, enacted its first law providing for the inspection of factories in 1877, it was not until six years later, or in 1883, that its example was followed by another state, New Jersey. Wisconsin in the same year provided for inspection through its bureau of labor. Ohio followed in the succeeding year, 1884. The movement, however, once fairly started, has spread with increasing rapidity. In 1886 New York provided for factory inspection. In 1887 Connecticut, Minnesota and Maine did likewise. These were followed by Pennsylvania in 1889, Missouri and Tennessee in 1891, Illinois and Michigan in 1893, and Rhode Island in 1894. There are, therefore, at the present time, fourteen states that have made some provision for factory inspection.

"Fourteen states out of forty-five is, of course, a small proportion. As has been stated, however, it is not a completed movement that is being studied. We are rather in the position of one who in the midst of action stops to look back and see what has been accomplished in order better to determine his course for the future.

"In considering the progress that has been made, moreover, a comparison should be made not with the total number of states, but rather with the states in which the manufacturing industry is largely developed. It will thus be seen that of the New England and Middle States, all of which are manufacturing states, the smaller states alone—New Hampshire, Vermont, Delaware and Maryland—have no inspection. In the Middle Western States, Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, Missouri, Minnesota and Wisconsin have inspection officers. The far Western and Southern States, if we except the slight measure of inspection in Tennessee, are absolutely unrepresented. In these states, however, the manufacturing interests are but little developed.

"Finally, it is important to recognize that the growth of factory inspection lies not only in the creation of new departments in different states, but in the enlargement of the powers and the broadening of the scope of the work of inspection services after they have once been initiated. The principal development of factory inspection is found in the development of each particular bureau.

"An appreciation of this development, therefore, can only be had by studying the development of factory inspection in each state in which action has been taken, after which the general features of the movement can be summarized."

The New Tenement House Laws in New York City.—The results thus far from the new laws put upon the statute books upon the recommendation of the Tenement House Commission of 1894, have been stated briefly in one of the pamphlets of the Citizens' Union, which was published for campaign purposes a few months ago. We quote from it as follows:

"All civilized cities pay great attention to the question of the housing of the masses of the population. In New York it is particularly desirable that the authorities should not neglect this question, for our city is the most crowded of all modern cities. So far as is known, plague-ridden Bombay is the only great city in the world which is anything like as crowded as New York. There is only one city district in all Europe, a part of Prague in Bohemia, which is even half as crowded as parts of New York, where we sometimes see in the neighborhood of 1000 inhabitants to the acre.

"The present city administration found itself charged, from the very start, with the duty of passing upon and enforcing the tenement house laws put on the statute books at the suggestion of the Tenement House Commission of 1894. In New York where more than one-half (about eight-fifteenths) of the whole population lives in tenements, strictly speaking, leaving the tenants of the higher class flats out of the count, this question naturally takes first rank. Mayor Strong approved the new laws promptly, and the machinery for their enforcement was set in motion with as little delay as possible. The change that has been wrought in the short space of two years is very great. It is not within the power of man to remodel the whole body of New York's 40,000 tenements in two or in twenty years; but a vast deal has been done to better the condition of those who live in them. The worst houses have been seized and destroyed, more light and air have been secured to those hereafter to be built, and some of the most serious evils besetting life in the tenements which remain have been abolished.

"The worst of these evils, the risk of midnight fires, has been met, so far as that was possible by action of the authorities, through the banishment of dangerous trades from tenement houses. The cruller bakery was the most hazardous as well as the commonest of these trades. The bakery was always in the basement, and the fat in which the crullers were cooked was boiled in the small hours of the morning when the tenants upstairs were asleep. An accident, the upsetting of a pan of fat on the stove, was the signal for a fire that swept through the house with uncontrollable fury, carrying panic and death to the sleepers. The 'cruller fire' was one of the constantly recurring horrors of our city's life. Scores of lives have been sacrificed to the

official neglect that allowed perpetual warning to go unheeded. Within the last year this source of peril has been entirely removed. The fat-boiling bakeries have been driven out of the tenement houses. The Health Department brought 107 suits and obtained 41 judgments for violation of the new law which requires certain safeguards against fire. That broke up the business; 119 bakeries gave the cruller up; 7 made their bakeries fireproof under the direction of the Fire Department, and were licensed to carry on their no longer dangerous trade. Paint and oil stores, feed stores and other depots of inflammable wares in tenement houses have been put under the control of the Fire Department and the Department of Buildings. Since the law was enforced, there has not been an instance of loss of life through neglect of its provisions.

"No tenement has been built in New York in the past two years that has not had (except on corner lots) one-fourth of the lot upon which it stands left open to the light and air. The Tenement House Commission measured a whole block on the east side, typical of the worst tenement traditions, where the interior air-space was only one-fourteenth of the whole area. Ninety-three per cent of the ground was covered with brick and mortar. Under the custom of the Building Department, 78 per cent was the limit for new buildings. Custom is no longer allowed to fix the limit. It is now, under the new law and the action of the Building Department, 75 per cent. The tenant has gained three feet in a hundred. That abomination, the dark bedroom, is gone for good. With 25 per cent of the lot left open, every room can have—must have—a window opening on the outer air. In all tenements built to-day provision is made, by means of fireproof stairs and doors, for preventing fires that break out in the cellar or on the first floor, from reaching the upper part of the building before the tenants have had time to escape. The present Building Department carefully enforces the new laws.

"When a year ago the sanitary police made a census of the tenements, they counted 14,000 that had no light in the hallways at night. The owners were ordered to comply with the new tenement-house law, which requires that such halls shall be lighted not only at night, but by day as well, if no outer light enters. A reinspection showed that two-thirds of the landlords had obeyed the order. A third survey, made last spring, found only 600 halls unlighted below Fourteenth street. Steady pressure is being exerted to compel the lighting of dark halls by day also. The Board of Health has gone about the enforcement of these laws with a wise conservatism that has been more than justified by the results, holding that it is to the largest extent a 'campaign of education' in which it is engaged. It is safe to

predict that in a not very distant day the dark tenement hall will be, with the 'culler fire,' a thing of a bad past.

"The worst of the old rookeries are gone. This is the signal success of the year. The new tenement house law permits the seizure and condemnation of tenements absolutely unfit to live in, upon payment to their owners of a nominal sum. A year ago, upon application of the Good Government Clubs, sixteen rear tenements that were of the most vicious type, were seized, and the tenants ordered out. Other buildings were condemned in quick succession, the death registry serving as the guide of the sanitary officials. The landlords had resort to the courts, but were beaten in a series of decisions, which materially strengthened the Health Department's position. So far ninety-three tenements have been seized—rear buildings, all of them, with one or two exceptions. Thirty have been already destroyed, the city paying the owners from \$50 to \$200 for each; thirteen have been remodeled under direction of the department. The rest have been vacated under the action of the board. The death-rate has come down from 26.26 in the first half of 1887 to 19.60—the lowest in the records of the department—in the corresponding half of 1897, which means a saving of 6629 lives during the six months, had the death-rate of ten years ago been maintained with the population of to-day; or 13,258 for the whole year, supposing the record of the six months to be maintained throughout the year. Other factors, such as the effective cleaning of streets, the better supervision of the milk and food supply, the opening of new parks, and better sanitation every way, enter into this showing; that the demolition of the old rookeries has helped also to effect this good result no one can doubt who recalls the Tenement House Commission's denunciation of them as 'veritable slaughter-houses.' 'The legislation,' said its report, 'which will most favorably affect the death-rate of New York, is such as will do away with the rear tenements, and root out every old, ramshackle, disease-breeding tenement house in the city.'

"Houses front and rear on same lot of which the rear houses were condemned and vacated during 1896:

Total population	3,045
Total deaths, 1891-95 inclusive	958
Annual average of deaths	191.6
Average annual death-rate for five years of all these houses (87 street numbers)	62.9
Normal death-rate of city during same five-year period	24.63

"For every one who dies there are counted twenty-eight who are sick, and sickness to the wage-worker means loss of pay in addition to pain and trouble.

"It is not only necessary to have good laws, but to have these laws intelligently and promptly enforced. The present administration has done well for all the inhabitants of the city in enforcing the new health laws, and the new laws for the better housing of the people."

Present System of Public Charity in Massachusetts.—A determined but hitherto ineffectual effort to reform the system of public charity in Massachusetts has been made on the part of the leading workers in Boston. A commission was recently appointed to investigate the charitable and reformatory interests and institutions of the commonwealth. The commission recommended some radical changes, namely, that a department for children be created to take charge of the dependent and neglected children that are wards of the commonwealth, the department to be under the supervision of a State Board of Charities. Secondly, that a State Board of Insanity be created, to supervise the care of the insane within the commonwealth. Third, that a State Board of Charities be created to supervise all public charities within the commonwealth, and this last board be the successor to all the powers and duties of the present Board of Lunacy and Charity, except the supervision of the insane and care of children. In addition to these recommendations, it is also proposed that the state assume the control and the expense of all the pauper insane, and that the settlement laws be simplified and so modified as to make cities and towns less often liable for the support of non-resident paupers than at present.

The recommendations of the commission are still a matter of public discussion. The sketch which the commission made of the present system and of its results, is of interest to all students of public charities. The report states that public charity in Massachusetts is administered by the state and by the cities and towns.

I. City and town charity consists chiefly in the support of people in almshouses, in giving relief to people in their own homes, and in providing temporary shelter for tramps.

System of Administration.—The almshouses are managed and the relief given by the overseers of the poor of each city and town (and by the Institutions Commissioner of the city of Boston). The tramps are taken charge of sometimes by the overseers of the poor, sometimes by the police.

Statistics.—There are 352 cities and towns, of which 207 have almshouses of their own, 2 have an almshouse in common, and one almshouse is used by 7 towns. The remainder (136) have no almshouses. Some cities and towns have tramp-houses or tramp-rooms, some receive tramps in the almshouse, some in the police stations, and some in a hotel.

On March 31, 1896, the cities and towns were supporting 4972 persons in almshouses; while during the year ending September 30, 1896, they also supported or relieved about 53,000 different persons outside of almshouses—chiefly in their own homes. The average number of tramps lodged at night during that year was 622.7.

There is, besides, the Boston Lunatic Hospital, governed by the Institutions Commissioner of the city of Boston, and containing on September 30, 1896, 182 patients.

II. State charity consists chiefly in the support of people in large institutions.

There are seven state lunatic hospitals and asylums, one hospital for dipsomaniacs, one hospital for epileptics, and two institutions for the feeble-minded (making eleven institutions in all for the mentally defective). There are, besides, the Lyman School for Boys and the State Industrial School for Girls, the State Almshouse for Sane Paupers and some of the chronic insane, and the State Farm, in which paupers, criminals, sane and insane, are received.

System of Administration.—Each of these institutions is governed by a board of trustees, except that the Worcester Lunatic Hospital and the Worcester Insane Asylum are governed by the same board, and the two reform schools are governed by one board, as are also the State Almshouse and the State Farm. Thus there are a total of fifteen state institutions, governed by twelve boards of trustees.

Statistics.—The above-named state institutions contained on September 30, 1896:

Insane persons	5,536
Others mentally defective	530
Sane paupers	1,455
Reform school children	397
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	7,918

Besides the children in the reform schools, there are in the custody of the schools, but placed out in private families on trial, about	500
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Adding these makes a total, in charge of state institutions, of	8,418
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Two exceptions: Besides carrying on the above-named institutions, the state has also charge of insane persons boarded in families (of whom there were 129 on September 30, 1896), and of the state children.

The latter are dependent and neglected children and the younger and more tractable of the juvenile offenders. They usually number about 1650. Some of them are placed for a short time in a temporary

home, but the great majority are either boarded or placed without payment of board in private families throughout Massachusetts and in neighboring states.

These two classes of state wards are an exception to the general rule of placing executive control in the hands of special boards of trustees, being both in the control and care of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity

III. *Supervision*.—All the above-named state institutions, the city and town almshouses, the Boston Lunatic Hospital, the McLean Hospital (a private institution) and the thirteen private insane asylums, are subject to visitation, inspection and report on the part of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity. It is also the duty of this board to advise the legislature in regard to appropriations for the state institutions, and to make suggestions in regard to them and concerning the charitable and reformatory interests of the commonwealth; to decide questions arising (*e. g.*, between the various executive boards, state and local, and between Massachusetts and other states and counties) as to the legal obligation and proper place of support, and in some cases to carry out such decisions.

The care of the boarded-out insane and that of the state children, being in the hands of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity itself, are not subject to supervision.

IV. In some cases the relief administered by cities and towns is paid for by the state, and *vice versa*.

Extent of the above system. The whole number of persons dealt with during the year ending September 30, 1896, by the public charities of Massachusetts, as above described, was about 88,000.

This total was composed as follows :

I. Insane in public care:	
Insane in state institutions (liv, 51, 53) *	7,689
Insane in Boston Insane Hospital (79, 80)	673
Insane in city and town almshouses (approximate) (xl)	1,000†
The boarded-out insane (in control of State Board) (91)	149
Total insane in public care	9,511
II. Persons other than the insane in care of state:	
1. Supported in state institutions (including dipsomaniacs, feeble-minded, epileptics, sane paupers, tramps, other criminals and children in reform schools) (liv)	7,930
2. Children placed out from the reform schools (23)	897
3. Children in care of State Board (23, 18)	2,136
Total of Class II	10,963

* References are to pages of the 1896 "Report of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity."

† Probably an underestimate. The number March 31, 1896, was 829 (xl).

III. Persons other than the insane helped by cities and towns:

1. Supported in city and town almshouses (exclusive of the insane)	
(xxx)	7,878
2. Tramps lodged by cities and towns (estimated)* (xxx)	1,000
3. Persons supported and relieved by cities and towns outside of almshouses, chiefly in their homes (approximate) (viii, first series)	53,000
Total of Class III	63,878

IV. Others dealt with:

Insane in fourteen private hospitals and asylums under supervision of State Board of Lunacy and Charity	424
Boarding-houses for infants, inspected by State Board: Infants reported on during the year	1,235
Trials of juvenile offenders and neglected children attended by agents of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity (the duty of the board's agent being to carefully investigate each case before trial)	2,984
	4,643
Total, allowing for duplications not already allowed for in above figures, about	88,000

This number, 88,000, is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the entire population of Massachusetts, or a fraction more than an average of one person in every six families in the state, allowing five persons to the family.

The cost of support and relief for the year ending

September 30, 1896, was	\$2,874,234 (p. viii, first series)
Salaries and traveling and office expenses of State Board of Lunacy and Charity	89,653 (p. 192)

Total cost of relieving pauperism, exclusive of interest on plant \$2,963,887

Main features of the above system.—The above is a very brief, and therefore imperfect, statement of the system of administration, and of the extent, of our public charities. The main features of this system, as has been seen, are:

I. A large number of executive boards, each devoted to the care or relief of a given group of dependents.

II. A board having supervision over the work of the executive boards and over the system of public charity as a whole.

III. Special provision by the state for classes of dependents requiring special treatment; namely, for the insane, the various other classes of mentally defective (feeble-minded, epileptics and dipsomaniacs), and for juvenile offenders.

* There were 227,465 acts of vagrancy reported—a daily average of 622.7 (xxx).